# Drosophila protein phosphatase V functionally complements a SIT4 mutant in Saccharomyces cerevisiae and its amino-terminal region can confer this complementation to a heterologous phosphatase catalytic domain

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The sequence of a Drosophila melanogaster cDNA encoding a novel 35 kDa protein serine/threonine phosphatase, termed PPV, is presented. PPV is  $40-41\%$ identical to Drosophila PP1, 53% identical to Drosophila PP2A and 63% identical to Saccharomyces cerevisiae SIT4. Complementation studies demonstrated that PPV can functionally rescue a temperature sensitive mutant of SIT4, a protein phosphatase required for the  $G_1$  to S transition of the cell cycle. When placed under the SIT4 promoter, PPV cDNA is able to replace the SIT4 gene in S.cerevisiae. The amino-terminal domain of PPV fused to another phosphatase catalytic region (PP1) also rescues the temperature sensitive SIT4 mutant and the SIT4 deletion mutant, implicating this region in binding to regulatory subunits and/or altering specificity. In Drosophila, a substantial transient increase in both PPV mRNA and protein occurs in late syncitial and early cellular blastoderm embryos. At the latter stage PPV is localized to the cytoplasm of cells at the cortex. This increase in PPV correlates with introduction of the  $G_2$ phase of the cell cycle, elevated zygotic transcription and cellularization, indicating that PPV may play a role in one or more of these processes.

Key words: cell cycle/cellularization/Drosophila/protein phosphatase/regulation of transcription

# Introduction

Reversible phosphorylation on serine and threonine residues is now recognized as a major mechanism by which many intracellular processes are controlled, such as signal integration (Cohen, 1992), transcription (Meek and Street, 1992) and cell division (Yanagida et al., 1992). A diverse array of protein serine/threonine kinases have been characterized (Hunter, 1991) and it has become evident over the last few years that there is also a large family of protein serine/threonine phosphatases which reverse the actions of these kinases (Cohen et al., 1990; Chen et al., 1992). Four types of protein serine/threonine phosphatase activity were originally distinguished, PP1, PP2A, PP2B and PP2C, by enzymatic criteria (Cohen, 1989) and molecular cloning has revealed that they fall into two structurally distinct families: the PP1/2A/2B family and the PP2C family (Cohen et al., 1990).

In vitro, the isolated catalytic subunits of the type <sup>1</sup> and type 2A protein phosphatases have broad and overlapping substrate specificities. Tight control of these activities in vivo is believed to be achieved by reversible binding to targeting subunits which not only direct the catalytic subunits to particular locations but also modify their catalytic properties (Hubbard and Cohen, 1993). Among the best characterized targeting subunit is the G subunit, which directs the PP1 catalytic subunit to glycogen particles where it mediates the hormonal regulation of glycogen metabolism (Dent et al., 1990). More recently, further targeting subunits have been identified in skeletal and smooth muscles, which target PP1 to the myofibrils and enhance the myosin dephosphorylating activity of the PP1 catalytic subunit while suppressing the dephosphorylation of glycogen metabolizing enzymes (Alessi et al., 1992; Dent et al., 1992).

The PP2A catalytic subunit is also complexed to other proteins in vivo. The catalytic subunit can bind to the A subunit, through which it then binds to one of a number of B subunits. Although there is currently no evidence that the the A and B subunits have <sup>a</sup> targeting function, their presence modifies the catalytic activity of PP2A towards various substrates (reviewed in Cohen, 1989; Ferrigno et al., 1993). In addition, the A subunit binds to the SV40, polyoma and BK virus small T antigens and polyoma middle T antigen in infected cells, resulting in the formation of  $T$  antigen  $-A$ subunit- PP2A catalytic subunit complexes (Mumby and Walter, 1991).

The catalytic subunits of mammalian PP1 and PP2A are  $\sim$  40% identical in amino acid sequence (Berndt et al., 1987) and both catalytic subunits have remained remarkably conserved through evolution (Cohen, 1990). However, molecular cloning has demonstrated the existence of a number of novel PP1/PP2A-like catalytic subunits including rabbit PPX (Brewis et al., 1993), Drosophila melanogaster PPY (Dombrádi et al., 1989b), Saccharomyces cerevisiae PPZ (da Cruz e Silva et al., 1991; Posas et al., 1992; Hughes et al., 1993) and PPG (Posas et al., 1993). The physiological substrates of these novel enzymes are unknown.

Among the best characterized of the novel protein phosphatases in S. cerevisiae is SIT4, which was originally identified from a gene in which mutations increased HIS4 transcription in the absence of three transcription factors, BAS1, BAS2 and GCN4 (Arndt et al., 1989). In certain genetic backgrounds, an allele of SIT4, sit4-102, causes a temperature sensitive cell cycle arrest in late  $G<sub>1</sub>$ , at about the time when SIT4 becomes complexed with two high molecular weight phosphoproteins (Sutton et al., 1991a). The late  $G_1$  arrest is due to the requirement for SIT4 in the accumulation of the  $G_1$  cyclin mRNAs, an effect mediated at least in part via the transcription factor SW14 (Fernandez-Sarabia et al., 1992). SIT4 is also required for at least one other function in late  $G_1$  as evidenced by the fact that in sit4 mutants, constitutive expression of the  $G_1$  cyclin CLN2 results in DNA synthesis without bud emergence (Fernandez-Sarabia et al., 1992).

Here we report the isolation of <sup>a</sup> cDNA encoding <sup>a</sup> novel

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protein phosphatase from D. melanogaster, termed PPV, which is maximally expressed at the periphery of the blastoderm embryo with <sup>a</sup> cytoplasmic distribution. We show that PPV is a functional homologue of S. cerevisiae SIT4 and that the amino-terminal domain of PPV can convert a PP1 catalytic subunit into an enzyme with the in vivo function of SIT4.

# **Results**

## Isolation and cDNA sequence of PPV

Screening 90 000 plaque forming units of a Drosophila head cDNA library at moderate stringency with <sup>a</sup> Drosophila PPI 87B probe yielded 92 positively hybridizing plaques. These clones were screened with a panel of oligonucleotides complementary to known Drosophila protein phosphatases. Two clones hybridizing positively with the PPJ 87B cDNA probe, but not with any of the specific oligonucleotide probes, contained inserts of 1.5 kb whose <sup>5</sup>' and <sup>3</sup>' terminal 300 nucleotides were identical. The nucleotide sequence of one clone was completely elucidated (nucleotides 39-1596, Figure 1). Sequence analysis showed the presence of a single large open reading frame (ORF), which displayed considerable similarity to the amino acid sequences of type <sup>1</sup> and type 2A protein phosphatases and was termed protein phosphatase V (PPV). However, the cDNA appeared to be truncated at the <sup>5</sup>' end when compared with other protein phosphatases and lacked a methionine codon in a sequence context suitable for translation initiation. Therefore, <sup>a</sup> cDNA library derived from Drosophila eye imaginal discs was screened with oligonucleotides complementary to sequences at the <sup>5</sup>' end of the ORF. One double positive clone was isolated containing a 1.6 kb insert which was sequenced from both strands (Figure 1). Nucleotides 39 - 1596 were identical to those of the previous clone, but the ORF was extended at the 5' terminus.

The PPV cDNA contained a single large ORF encoding a protein of 303 amino acids with a predicted molecular mass of 34.7 kDa. The sequences adjacent to the assigned initiating methionine exhibit close correlation with the Drosophila consensus initiation sequence as determined by Cavener (1987). Sequence of the gene (data not shown) identified an in frame stop codon 12 nucleotides <sup>5</sup>' to the start of the sequence in Figure <sup>1</sup> with no motifs that indicated the presence of an intron-exon boundary in this region, corroborating our assignment of the initiating methionine



Fig. 1. Nucleotide and predicted amino acid sequence of the PPV cDNA. Nucleotides are numbered from the ATG encoding the putative initiating methionine. Amino acids conserved in all members of the PP1/PP2A/PP2B family are underlined. The termination codon is indicated by an asterisk and the potential polyadenylation signal is double underlined. The sequence of the genomic clone was identical to the cDNA except for nucleotide 675 (C) which was T in the genomic sequence; this change does not result in any amino acid difference. Arrowheads indicate the positions of the two introns in the coding region of the PPV gene.



Fig. 2. Characterization of the PPV gene. (A) Total genomic DNA from *D.melanogaster* strain Oregon  $\tilde{R}$  was digested with *EcoRI* (R), HindIII (H) or  $Bg/II$  (B). The DNA fragments were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis, transferred to Hybond  $N^+$  by Southern blotting and hybridized with full-length PPV cDNA. The fragment sizes indicated are in kilobases. (B) The biotin-labelled  $PPV$  cDNA was hybridized to polytene chromosomes from third instar larvae. A was hybridized to polytene chromosomes from third instar lar<br>single site of hybridization was detected at cytological positioi on the X chromosome. This site was consistently observed in more than five different preparations.

codon. The <sup>3</sup>' non-coding region is 690 nucleotides in length and following the stop codon there are additional in frame termination signals starting at positions 925 and 950. The clone terminates in a  $poly(A)$  tract and, although lacking the consensus polyadenylation signal, contains the motif ATTAAA, commencing <sup>17</sup> nucleotides from the start of the poly(A) tail which can direct polyadenylation (Wickens, 1990).

# Chromosomal localization and expression of PPV

Southern blot analysis (Figure 2A) of Drosophila genomic DNA using the 1.6 kb cDNA as probe indicated that *PPV* is encoded by a single copy gene. This result is corroborated by hybridization of the *PPV* cDNA to polytene chromosomes; only a single site of hybridization was found, 6 at cytological position 6A1-2 on the X chromosome (Figure 2B).

> Northern blot analysis utilizing  $poly(A)^+$  RNA isolated from Drosophila at different developmental stages revealed that the cDNA hybridized to <sup>a</sup> single 2.0 kb polyadenylated species which was most abundant in  $0-4$  h old embryos (Figure 3A). Prolonged exposure showed  $PPV$  to be present in all of the other developmental stages and in adults of both sexes at a low level (data not shown). This result is consistent with the fact that the  $PPV$ cDNA was isolated from libraries derived from non-embryonic tissues. As a control for the possible variation in the amount of RNA loaded, the same blot is shown after removal of the PPV cDNA probe and hybridization with a cDNA probe specific for  $PPI$  87B (Figure 3B), which is present at a constant level during Drosophila development (Dombrádi et al., 1989a). In order to study the developmental expression of  $PPV$  in greater detail, Northern blots were performed using  $poly(A)^+$  RNA isolated from  $0-2$  and  $2-4$  h old embryos. Figure 3C shows that *PPV* is expressed at a higher level in  $2-4$  h



Fig. 3. PPV mRNA levels during the Drosophila life cycle. (A) Poly(A)<sup>+</sup> RNA from different developmental stages was analysed, after electrophoresis and transfer to Hybond N membranes, by hybridization with the full-length PPV cDNA. E1, 0-4 h old embryos; E2, 4-24 h old embryos; L, larvae; P, pupae; M, male adult flies; F, female adult flies. (B) To control for variation in the amount of RNA loaded, the PPV cDNA probe was stripped from the blot shown in panel A and the blot hybridized with the PP1 87B cDNA. This mRNA is expressed at a constant level during Drosophila development (Dombrádi et al., 1989a). (C and D) Poly(A)<sup>+</sup> RNA, isolated from  $0-2$  h (1) or  $2-4$  h (2) old embryos maintained at 25°C and hybridized with either PPV or PP1 87B cDNA, respectively. The sizes of the transcripts are in kilobases and the positions of migration of RNA molecular weight markers are shown to the right of panel A.



Fig. 4. Spatial distribution of  $PPV$  mRNA in a cellular blastoderm embryo. (A) Embryos were analysed by *in situ* hybridization using a digoxygenin-<br>labelled full-length  $PPV$  cRNA probe, binding being detected indirectly



Fig. 5. Analysis of PPV protein distribution in the embryo. The upper halves of panels A, C and D show the distribution of PPV in whole mount<br>embryos detected by indirect immunofluoresence using affinity purified anti-pept antigenic peptide coupled to Affigel 15. The lower halves of all panels show the same fields stained with propidium iodide to visualize DNA. Panels A and B show optical sections through cellular blastoderm embryos. Both e embryos. Quantification by densitometric scanning demonstrated that the  $2-4$  h embryos expressed approximately twice as much PPV mRNA as the  $0-2$  h embryos. The timing of increased expression indicates that the majority of the PPV mRNA is zygotically transcribed, consistent with the observation that the level of this mRNA in adult females is similar to that observed in adult males (data not shown).

The distribution of PPV mRNA in early embryos was analysed by in situ hybridization using antisense cRNA probes. In early syncitial embryos, PPV mRNA was barely detectable over control hybridizations performed in parallel with a sense PPV cRNA probe (data not shown). However, after the cortical nuclear migration, the level of PPV transcripts had increased significantly and was clearly detectable over non-specific staining. The  $PPV$  mRNA was concentrated in the cytoplasm and excluded from the nuclear region (Figure 4). Later embryos displayed less specific staining (data not shown) indicating either degradation of the message or redistribution throughout the embryo.

In order to investigate whether the PPV protein had the same spatial and temporal distribution as PPV mRNA, we raised antibodies to a synthetic peptide comprising amino acids 285-300. The sequence of this region is distinct from that of all other known *Drosophila* protein phosphatases. Immunoblotting with affinity purified antibodies showed that they were specific to PPV and did not cross-react with up to 5  $\mu$ g of either PP1 or PP2A purified from rabbit skeletal muscle, Drosophila PPY or rabbit PPX expressed in baculovirus (data not shown). The antibodies were used to analyse the distribution of PPV in embryos, binding being detected via an anti-rabbit  $IgG$  -fluorescein conjugate. The pattern of antibody staining was similar to that observed for the PPV mRNA. A transient increase in the expression of PPV protein was found in late syncitial and early cellular blastoderm embryos. PPV was excluded from nuclei and

found in the surrounding cytoplasm, both apical and basal to the nuclei (Figure 5). The level of PPV protein, like the PPV mRNA, declined rapidly after gastrulation commenced (data not shown). Control experiments in which the PPV antibodies were preadsorbed against the synthetic peptide showed no specific staining of embryos.

# PPV is most closely related in sequence to S.cerevisiae SIT4

The amino acid sequence of PPV exhibits  $40-41\%$  identity to the type <sup>1</sup> protein phosphatases found in D. melanogaster (Dombradi et al., 1990a, 1993) and 53% identity to Drosophila PP2A (Orgad et al., 1990). Thus, PPV belongs to the type 2A subfamily. In order to understand the sequence relationships between the various members of the type 2A family, we constructed a phylogenetic tree of these protein phosphatases from mammals, Drosophila and yeast (Figure 6) by the progressive alignment procedure of Feng and Doolittle (1990). On the basis of this comparison, the type 2A protein phosphatases fall into two groups, the classical PP2As and the novel PP2A-like protein phosphatases. The latter can be further subdivided into three subgroups: PPX/PPH3, PPG and PPV/SIT4. The more recently published S.pombe ppel<sup>+</sup> (Shimanuki et al., 1993; Matsumoto and Beach, 1993) falls into the PPV/SIT4 subgroup (Figure 6A).

### PPV can functionally complement a SIT4 mutation

The sequence similarity of PPV to SIT4 prompted us to test whether overexpression of PPV would suppress the temperature sensitive growth phenotype of S. cerevisiae strain CY249. This haploid strain has a genomic deletion of SIT4 and carries the sit4-102 allele on the plasmid YCp50. sit4-102 contains a mutation within the coding region of the gene (glutamic acid 38 to lysine, Sutton et al., 1991b) which leads to arrest at the  $G_1-S$  transition of the cell cycle at 37<sup>°</sup>C



Fig. 6. Relationship of PPV to other protein serine/threonine phosphatases. (A) Phylogenetic tree constructed using the progressive alignment programme of Feng and Doolittle (1990). The scale bar indicates evolutionary distance units. The distance is derived according to the Poisson relationship  $D = -\ln S$  where S is a measure of the similarity between sequences. R. PP2A $\alpha$ , R. PP2A $\beta$  (da Cruz e Silva and Cohen, 1987) and R.PPX (Brewis et al., 1993) are rabbit sequences; D. PP2A (Orgad et al., 1990) and D.PPV (this paper) are *Drosophila* sequences; pp2a1+ pp2a2<sup>+</sup> (Kinoshita et al., 1990) and ppe1<sup>+</sup> (Shimanuki et al., 1993) are from S.pombe; PPH21 and PPH22 (mammalian PP2A $\alpha$  and PP2A $\beta$ homologues, Sneddon et al., 1990), PPH3 (Ronne et al., 1990), SIT4 (Arndt et al., 1989) and PPG (Posas et al., 1993) are from S.cerevisiae. (B) Comparison of the amino-termini of PPV. SIT4 and ppel with Drosophila PPl and PP2A. The boxed amino acids are residues common to PPV, SIT4 and ppel but absent from other known Drosophila, S.cerevisiae or S.pombe protein serine/threonine phosphatases. The residues in the stippled boxes denote a motif which is conserved between all members of the PP1/PP2A/PP2B family.

(Sutton et al., 1991a). The 1.6 kb PPV cDNA was cloned into the multicopy expression vector pADH (which possesses <sup>a</sup> LEU2 selectable marker) so that PPV expression was driven by the ADHI promoter. Transformants of CY249 were tested for the ability to grow at 37°C. Only PPV was able to complement the mutation so as to permit growth at the restrictive temperature (Table I). It should be noted that both Drosophila PP2A and PPX appeared to be lethal to S. cerevisiae under this expression regime; no transformants were obtained, even when batches of the same competent cells produced transformants when treated with either PPV in the vector or vector alone.

As the *ADH1* promoter utilized above is a strong, constitutive promoter, we tested the ability of  $PPV$  to rescue the temperature sensitivity of CY249 when expressed under the control of the SIT4 promoter itself. The construct created (Figure 7A) comprised the SIT4 promoter, the first four codons of SIT4, the PPV coding region (minus its first four codons) and the SIT4 <sup>3</sup>' non-coding region in the single copy vector YCp5O; in addition the URA3 gene of YCp5O was replaced with the LEU2 gene to provide an appropriate selectable marker. After introduction of this construct into



Plasmids were constructed as described in Materials and methods and used to transform S.cerevisiae strain CY249. Transformants were tested for the ability to grow at 37°C. Overexpression of PPH21 was shown by Sutton *et al.* (1991a) to be ineffective in suppressing the temperature sensitivity of any sit4 strain. ND, not determined.

CY249, transformants were selected and tested for their ability to grow at 37°C. PPV was again able to suppress the growth arrest phenotype (Table I).

Since sit4-102 was expressed from the plasmid YCp5O which contains the  $URA\bar{3}$  selectable marker we were able to test whether PPV could completely replace the SIT4 gene by growing transformants on medium containing 5-fluoroorotic acid (FOA); this compound is metabolized by the product of the URA3 gene to produce 5-fluorouracil, a toxic metabolite. Thus, growth on medium containing FOA and uracil enables strains to be cured of URA3-containing plasmids (Guthrie and Fink, 1991). Expression of PPV from either the ADH1 or SIT4 promoters permitted growth on medium containing FOA, demonstrating that PPV can completely replace the otherwise essential SIT4 gene in this strain (Figure 7B).

### Importance of the amino-terminal domain of PPV

Alignment of PPV and SIT4 with *D.melanogaster* type 1 and type 2A phosphatases revealed amino acid identities which were common to PPV and SIT4 but absent from other protein phosphatases. The amino-terminal region was the only domain in which these unique identities were more than simply isolated amino acids (Figure 6B). In order to test whether the ability of PPV to rescue the sit4-102 allele was conferred by the amino-terminal region with sequence similarity to SIT4, we constructed chimeric protein phosphatases. Since both Drosophila PP2A and PPX were apparently lethal using the ADH1 expression system, an isoform of Drosophila PP1, termed PP1 13C (Dombrádi et al., 1993), was used to construct the chimeric protein phosphatases. PPI 13C has been shown to encode a functional protein phosphatase, which is inhibited by inhibitor 2 and is 94% identical at the amino acid level to the better characterized PP1 87B (Dombrádi et al., 1990b, 1993). Two different chimeras were constructed in pADH (Figure 8A); the amino-terminal domain of PPV ligated to the catalytic domain of PP1 13C (termed  $V:13C$ ) and the amino-terminal domain of PPI 13C ligated to the catalytic domain of PPV



Fig. 7. Expression of PPV from the SIT4 promoter using a single copy plasmid abolishes the requirement for endogenous SIT4. (A) Schematic diagram showing the construct YCp50-SIT4-V. The plasmid is based on YCp50 except that the URA3 gene has been replaced with the LEU2 selectable marker. (B) S.cerevisiae strain CY249 (which contains sit4-102 on the YCp50 plasmid) was transformed with YCp50-SIT4-V. Transformants were grown on medium containing FOA (5-Foa) and uracil (Ura). Colonies were replated onto medium containing FOA and/or uracil and their ability to grow compared with that of the untransformed CY249. The inability of the PPV transformed yeast to grow in the absence of Ura indicates that the URA3/sit4-102-containing plasmid in CY249 had been lost.

(termed  $13C/V$ ). All constructs were verified by sequence analysis, cloned under the ADHI promoter and transformed into CY249. Recombinant S. cerevisiae were then replated at the non-permissive temperature. As shown in Figure 8B, only the chimera with the amino-terminal domain of PPV was able to permit growth at the restrictive temperature, clearly demonstrating that this region of  $PPV$  is essential for the rescue of  $s$ it4-102. The rate of growth permitted by the V:13C chimera was similar to that observed with intact PPV. In addition, counter selection on medium containing FOA and uracil to remove the URA3-containing YCp50 plasmid carying the sit4-102 allele was performed. This showed that the V:13C chimera expressed from the ADHI promoter could rescue the strain carrying a deletion of the SIT4 gene and no sit4 mutant allele (data not shown).

# **Discussion**

# PPV is a protein serine/threonine phosphatase and a functional homologue of SIT4

The Drosophila cDNA sequence presented here encodes <sup>a</sup> protein, termed PPV, which has sequence similarities to the family of protein serine/threonine phosphatases that includes PP1, PP2A and PP2B. Amino acid motifs invariant among all protein phosphatases from mammals to bacteriophage and predicted to be essential for catalytic activity (Cohen and Cohen, 1989) are also found in PPV (Figure 1). It is therefore likely that PPV is <sup>a</sup> functional protein serine/threonine phosphatase.

PPV exhibits most amino acid similarities to members of the PP2A subfamily (Figure 6A), showing  $51-55\%$  identity to mammalian, Drosophila and S.cerevisiae PP2A. The sequence similarities of Drosophila PPV to S.cerevisiae PPH3 (58% identity) and SIT4 (63% identity) are somewhat higher, suggesting that PPV may be the Drosophila homologue of *S. cerevisiae* SIT4. In order to examine this possibility, we showed that PPV functionally complemented a lethal temperature sensitive allele of the SIT4 gene, sit4-102, permitting growth at the restrictive temperature. No other phosphatases tested showed complementation. Moreover, *PPV* cDNA was able to replace completely the SIT4 gene when provided in single copy under the control of the SIT4 promoter.

# The amino-terminal domain of PPV confers the ability to rescue a SIT4 mutant onto a heterologous phosphatase catalytic domain

A chimera with the amino-terminal domain of PPV and the middle and carboxy-terminal region of PP1 13C  $(V:13C)$ rescued the SIT4 mutant, whereas the converse construct (13C:V) did not, pointing to the importance of the aminoterminal domain in conferring specificity of function. Studies in yeast and Aspergillus have demonstrated that PP2A genes cannot complement mutations in PP1 genes and vice versa (Kinoshita et al., 1990; Doonan et al., 1991; Shimanuki et al., 1993). Therefore it is remarkable that although PPV and SIT4 are members of the PP2A subfamily, the aminoterminal domain of PPV can rescue a SIT4 mutant when fused to a PP1 catalytic domain. This rescue is not due to interaction of the PPV amino-terminal domain with the endogenous sit4-102 mutant protein, since the  $V:13C$ chimera was able to rescue the strain lacking sit4-102 and carrying a deletion of the chromosomal SIT4 gene. It will clearly be of considerable interest to see whether fusion of the amino-terminal domain of PP2A to the catalytic domain of PP1 can complement a PP2A mutation.

The amino-terminus of PPV is encoded by a section of the PPV gene separated from the remainder of the PPV coding sequence by an intron <sup>3</sup>' of the conserved histidine-glycine amino acid doublet (residues 53 and 54 in Figure 1). Since introns often divide proteins into modular domains (Gilbert et al., 1986), this finding supports the view that the amino-terminus of PPV may have a specific function. There are several mechanisms by which the amino-terminal



Fig. 8. The amino-terminal domain of PPV confers the ability to rescue the SIT4 mutation onto <sup>a</sup> heterologous catalytic subunit. (A) Schematic diagram showing the derivation of the chimeric phosphatases. Heterologous domains were joined using an NcoI site which was common to the two catalytic subunits and cleaved immediately <sup>5</sup>' of the His codon in the conserved GDXHG motif (where X represents any amino acid). These constructs were cloned under the ADH1 promoter (see Materials and methods). (B) Growth rates at 37°C were determined for the strain carrying the sit4-102 mutation (CY249) when transformed with either pADH (O), pADH-PPV (A), pADH-PP1 13C ( $\bigcirc$ ), pADH V:13C ( $\boxtimes$ ) or pADH 13C:V  $(X)$ . The growth rate of the isogenic parental strain AY926  $(\triangle)$  is also shown.

domain of PPV might change the specificity of PP1 to that of PPV. First, the amino-terminal domain per se may convert the associated catalytic domain from type <sup>1</sup> to PPV (or type 2A-like) specificity. Secondly, the amino-terminal domain may be responsible for binding to an accessory subunit that targets the enzyme to its correct location. Thirdly, the aminoterminal domain may bind to a regulatory subunit that changes the specificity of the protein phosphatase catalytic domain. The latter two possibilities are perhaps more likely in that regulatory subunits have been shown to target and/or alter the specificity of other protein phosphatases (see Introduction). However, the cytoplasmic location of PPV does not indicate specific subcellular targeting (Figures 4 and 5). Therefore, the amino-terminal domain of PPV may be responsible for binding one or more regulatory subunits, which create very specific substrate preferences for this enzyme. In S. cerevisiae, the two high molecular weight phosphoproteins with which SIT4 associates at its execution point in late  $G_1$  of the cell cycle (Sutton *et al.*, 1991a) may indeed be such regulatory proteins.

# Potential in vivo roles for PPV

The pattern of expression of PPV in the *Drosophila* embryo indicates its involvement in processes which may parallel the functions of SIT4 in S.cerevisiae. During Drosophila embryonic development, transcription commences at about the tenth mitotic cycle and increases to a maximum during cycle 14, the time when cellularization occurs (Anderson and Lengyel, 1979, 1980). The pattern of PPV expression in the Drosophila embryo correlates with this temporal variation in the level of transcription. A potential role for PPV in the regulation of transcription is supported by analysis of mutations in the SIT4 gene, which cause changes in the expression of a diverse group of genes (Arndt et al., 1989). The extranuclear location of PPV does not preclude a transcriptional role since SIT4 has been shown to have a cytoplasmic distribution (Sutton et al., 1991a).

The period of maximal expression of PPV also correlates with the process of cellularization. PPV may be important in regulating the membrane movements involved in this event, in a manner analogous to the requirement for SIT4 in bud formation in S. cerevisiae (Fernandez-Sarabia et al., 1992). This could, of course, be via the regulation of transcription of genes involved in cellularization. The cellularization genes *nullo* and *serendipity*  $\alpha$  exhibit a transient increase in expression between nuclear cycles 11 and 14 (Rose and Wieschaus, 1992).

Whether PPV performs a role in the  $G_1$  phase of the *Drosophila* cell cycle similar to the SIT4 regulation of  $G_1$ cyclin mRNA expression in S. cerevisiae (Fernandez-Sarabia et al., 1992) is unclear. In the first 13 nuclear division cycles in the Drosophila embryo there is a rapid oscillation between DNA synthesis and mitosis without intervening gap phases. At cycle 14, when cellularization occurs, the  $G_2$  phase is introduced. The  $G_1$  phase is either absent or extremely short at cycle 14 and 15 and is only added or greatly lengthened after cycle 16, the period when germ band extension occurs (Edgar and O'Farrell, 1990). PPV mRNA and protein peak just before cellularization and their levels are declining at the period of germ band extension. Therefore the maximum levels of PPV are significantly earlier than the appearance of the  $G_1$  phase of the cell cycle. However, it could be argued that maximal levels of PPV might not

necessarily be required for the transcription of cyclin genes and are only necessary for the transcription of certain other genes at the time of cellularization. Nevertheless the only Drosophila homologue of the *S. cerevisiae*  $G_1$  cyclins which has been reported, termed cyclin C (Léopold and O'Farrell, 1991) or CLNDm (Lahue et al., 1991), is encoded by an mRNA that is maternally deposited in the embryo and the message declines as embryogenesis proceeds. Thus, there is no evidence for the transcriptional regulation of this  $G_1$ cyclin gene in a cell cycle-dependent manner in Drosophila embryos (Lahue et al., 1991; Léopold and O'Farrell, 1991). PPV could therefore only exert an effect on this  $G_1$  cyclin post-translationally, by changing its level of phosphorylation.

Recently, Shimanuki et al. (1993) have described the Schizosaccharomyces pombe  $ppel$ <sup>+</sup> gene which is structurally similar to SIT4 and PPV. The conserved residues which are common to the amino-terminal region PPV and SIT4 are also found in ppel (Figure 6B). However, ppel appears to have distinct functions from SIT4, in particular its deletion alters cell shape and causes a cold sensitive  $G<sub>2</sub>$ arrest (unlike the  $G_1$  block observed with  $s$ *it*4-102). While screening for suppressors of a piml mutant, Matsumoto and Beach (1993) also isolated  $ppel^+$ . The pim1 mutant caused uncoupling of mitosis from the completion of DNA replication, implicating ppel in the mitotic checkpoint between <sup>S</sup> and M phases. Since the transient increase in PPV expression occurs just prior to the introduction of  $G_2$  in the Drosophila embryo, it is possible that PPV regulates the initiation of this gap phase. It is clearly important to define the role of PPV in the regulation of the cell cycle and gene transcription and to this end we are currently attempting to define mutations in the Drosophila PPV gene.

# Materials and methods

# General techniques and isolation of DNA clones

General molecular biological procedures were performed as described by Sambrook et al. (1989). cDNA probes were labelled by random priming (Feinberg and Vogelstein, 1984) with either  $[\alpha^{-32}P]dATP$  (Amersham International) or biotin 16-dUTP (Boehringer Mannheim). Oligonucleotides were labelled with  $[\gamma^{-32}P]ATP$  and polynucleotide kinase. Sense and antisense cRNA probes were synthesized using either T7 or T3 RNA polymerase and digoxygenin 11-UTP (Boehringer Mannheim) from the fulllength PPV cDNA in the  $pKS<sup>+</sup>$  vector cut with BamHI or HindIII respectively.

A Xgt <sup>10</sup> D.melanogaster head cDNA library (Kalderon and Rubin, 1989) was screened with the 0.68 kb XhoI-NaeI cDNA fragment coding for amino acids  $51-277$  of Drosophila PP1 87B. Hybridization was performed as described by Dombrádi et al. (1989a) and the filters were washed in  $2 \times$  SSC (1  $\times$  SSC is 150 mM NaCl and 15 mM sodium citrate pH 7.0) at 60°C. The same library was screened with the following oligonucleotides: 5'-TCCGTGGACGATACGCTGATGTGC-3', a Drosophila PPI 87Bspecific probe in  $6 \times SSC$  at  $60^{\circ}C$ ; 5'-TGAACCGCCACGAGCT-GGACTTGAT-3', a PP1 9C-specific probe in  $6 \times$  SSC at  $60^{\circ}$ C; 5'-GCG-GGATCTAAATCACACCACCAAAGGC-3', <sup>a</sup> PPY-specific probe in  $6 \times$  SSC at 55 $\degree$ C. Bacteriophage, positive with cDNA but negative with the oligonucleotide probes, were purified by CsCl centrifugation. The DNA was isolated and digested with EcoRI and the released cDNA insert was subcloned into the Bluescript pKS<sup>+</sup> vector (Stratagene). Sequencing was performed on double-stranded, CsCl-purified DNA using [a-35S]dATP (Amersharn International), Sequenase version 2.0 (United States Biochemical Corp.) and 7-deaza-2'-dGTP to resolve compressions (Mizusawa et al., 1986). A partial length PPV cDNA was isolated from this screen.

In order to obtain the complete coding sequence, a  $\lambda$ gt 10 D.melanogaster eye imaginal disc cDNA library (Kalderon and Rubin, 1989) was screened with oligonucleotides complementary to nucleotides  $68-87$  and  $414-433$ of the PPV sequence (Figure 1). Hybridization was performed as described by Dombrádi et al. (1989a) at 45°C and filters were washed in 6  $\times$  SSC and 0.1% SDS at 55°C prior to autoradiography. In addition, genomic clones

were isolated from D.melanogaster (Canton S strain) genomic library (Clontech) by screening with the random primed PPV cDNA and an oligonucleotide complementary to nucleotides  $12-34$  (Figure 1). Phage DNA was digested with various restriction enzymes. The DNA fragments were resolved by agarose gel electrophoresis and examined after Southern blotting. A 3 kb EcoRI fragment hybridizing with the PPV cDNA was cloned into pKS+ for sequence analysis.

#### Southem, Northem and in situ hybridization

Genomic DNA was isolated from *D.melanogaster* strain Oregon R as described by Ashburner (1989) and Southern blots were performed according to Lehner and <sup>O</sup>'Farrell (1989).

Total RNA was isolated from various Drosophila developmental stages and  $poly(A)^+$  RNA selected as described in Dombradi et al. (1989a). Northern blots were performed by the formaldehyde method of Lehrach et al. (1977) and probed with the full-length  $PPV$  cDNA. Hybridization was performed at 65°C as for the library screens, blots being washed for 60 min in  $0.1 \times$  SSC and  $0.1\%$  SDS at 65°C. After autoradiography, the probe was removed by placing the blot in 1% (v/v) glycerol at  $85^{\circ}$ C for 5 min. The blot was then rehybridized with the 0.17 kb EcoRI-XhoI fragment in the <sup>5</sup>' non-coding region of the Drosophila PPJ 87B cDNA after having confirmed complete removal of the previous signal. Hybridization conditions and washing stringency for PPJ 87B were as for PPV.

Polytene chromosome preparations obtained from the salivary glands of female D.melanogaster (Oregon R strain) third instar larvae were hybridized with biotin-labelled, full-length PPV cDNA as described in Dombrádi et al. (1993). In situ hybridization to RNA in whole mount Drosophila embryos was performed using digoxygenin-labelled cRNA probes (Dalby and Glover, 1992). After colour development had been terminated, nuclei were stained with Hoescht 33258 (10  $\mu$ g/ml for 20 min). Embryos were then dehydrated in an ethanol series and mounted in Gary's Magic Mountant (Ashburner, 1989). Embryos were examined using an Olympus BH-2 microscope.

### Yeast strains and methodology

S.cerevisiae strains used were CY249 [MAT $\alpha$  ade2-1 his3-11,15 leu2-3,112 canl-100 ura3-1 trp1-1 ssd1-d2 sit4::HIS3 (sit4-102 on YCp50); Sutton et al., 1991a] and the parental strain AY926 (MATa ade2-1 his3-11,15 leu2-3,112 canl-100 ura3-1 trpl-1). Basic yeast methods and media were as described by Sherman et  $al.$  (1986). Plasmid DNA was recovered from S.cerevisiae by the method of Hoffman and Winston (1987). Transformation of yeast was as described by Ito et al. (1983).

#### Plasmid constructions

In the following constructions a restriction site with protruding single strand termini is referred to as being 'blunt', when the cohesive ends had been filled in using the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase and excess dNTPs (Sambrook et al., 1989). If multiple products were expected from a restriction digestion, the DNA was separated by agarose gel electrophoresis and the appropriate band cut from the gel. The DNA was electroeluted from the gel slice using a Biotrap (Schleicher and Schuell) and precipitated from the eluate. All constructs were verified by sequencing. The pADH yeast/bacterial shuttle vector contains <sup>a</sup> multiple cloning site downstream of the ADH1 promoter; the plasmid also carries the  $2\mu$  origin of replication and the LEU2 selectable marker.

pADH-PPV and pADH-PPV reverse. The entire PPV cDNA sequence in pKS+ was released with BamHI blunt and SalI. This PPV fragment was ligated into pADH which had been digested with HindIII blunt and SalI to give  $pADH-PPV$ . In order to obtain  $\overline{PPV}$  in the opposite orientation under the ADH1 promoter (pADH-PPV reverse), PPV in pKS<sup>+</sup> was cut with HindIII and SacI and cloned into pADH cut with the same enzymes.

pADH-PP1 13C. Using PCR, the PP1 13C genomic clone (Dombrádi et al., 1993) as template and the oligonucleotides GCGCCATATGGCGGAGG-TTCTCAATTT (sense) and GCGCAAGCTTACTTCTTGCGCTTCTCGA (antisense), the  $PPI$  13C coding region was amplified. The product was cut with NdeI and HindIII and the fragment cloned into pT7.7 digested with the same enzymes. The resultant plasmid was digested with NdeI blunt and HindIII. This fragment was ligated into pADH which had been digested with HindIII and SalI blunt.

 $pADH-V:13C$ . PPV in  $pKS^{+}$  was digested with NcoI (which cleaves after nucleotide 156 in PPV, Figure 1) and HindIII (in  $pKS^+$ ). PP1 13C in pT7.7 was digested with NcoI and HindIII and cloned into the electroeluted vector fragment to yield  $V:13C$  in pKS<sup>+</sup>.  $V:13C$  was then cloned into the pADH vector exactly as described for pADH-PPV.

 $pADH-13C:V. PPV$  in  $pKS^{+}$  was digested with SmaI (in  $pKS^{+}$ ) and NcoI. PP1 13C in pT7.7 was digested with NdeI blunt and NcoI and cloned into the electroeluted vector fragment to yield  $13C:V$  in pKS<sup>+</sup>.  $13C:V$  was then cloned into the pADH vector exactly as described for pADH-PPV.

YCp50-SIT4-V (Figure 7A). Using PCR,  $PPV$  in pKS<sup>+</sup> as template and the oligonucleotides GCGCTCTAGAGACAAGTGGATAGAAGACGTG (sense) and GCGCGCATGCGAACGTTTTACAGGAAGTAGG (antisense), a 0.9 kb fragment was amplified which introduced restriction sites at the third codon of *PPV* and 8 bp 3' of the termination codon. The product was cut with XbaI and SphI and the fragment cloned into sit4-102 in YCp50 digested with the same enzymes. This strategy caused the loss of the <sup>3</sup>' non-coding region of the sit4-102 gene due to the presence of a SphI site in YCp50. This fragment was released from  $s$ it4-102 in YCp50 by digestion with SphI and cloned into the SIT4-V construct digested with the same enzyme. Recombinants with the desired orientation of the cloned fragment were determined by sequencing. The plasmid YDpL was cut with BamHI blunt to release the LEU2 gene. The LEU2 selectable marker was cloned into the  $SIT4-V$  construct which had been cut with  $Smal$  and  $Sall$ blunt, this digestion causing the removal of the URA3 selectable marker from the YCp5O-based construct.

pADH-2A and pADH-X. The PP2A coding region was amplified using PCR with the Drosophila PP2A cDNA clone (Orgad et al., 1990) as template and the oligonucleotides GCGCCATATGGAGGATAAAGCAACAAC (sense) and GCGCAAGCTTAAAGGAAATAATCGGGTG (antisense). The product was cut with NdeI and HindIII and the fragment cloned into pT7.7 digested with the same enzymes. The resultant plasmid was digested with NdeI blunt and HindIII blunt. This fragment was ligated into pADH which had been digested with HindIII blunt. The insert orientation was verified by sequencing.

Drosophila PPX cDNA (N.D.Brewis and P.T.W.Cohen, unpublished results) in pKS<sup>+</sup> was cleaved with BamHI blunt and SalI and cloned into pADH cut with HindIII blunt and Sall.

#### Immunological methods

Antibodies were raised in rabbits against the synthetic peptide AVPDAERVIPKQNTTP corresponding to amino acids 285-300 of PPV. The peptide was synthesized using standard tertiary butoxy carbonyl chemistry and coupled to BSA as described in Brewis et al. (1993). Immunization, antibody collection and serum preparation were performed according to Harlow and Lane (1988). Anti-PPV antiserum was affinity purified using the PPV peptide coupled to Affigel <sup>15</sup> (Bio-Rad) as described by Brewis et al. (1993). Immunoblotting on to nitrocellulose (BA 85, Schleicher and Schuell) was carried out according to MacDougall et al. (1989). Membranes were blocked by an overnight incubation in 4% Marvel dried milk powder (Premier Brands) in TBS. Blots were then incubated with PPV antiserum (1  $\mu$ g/ml) in 1% Marvel in TBS for 3 h. After thorough washing, antibody binding was detected using <sup>a</sup> Vector Labs ABC Kit utilizing horseradish peroxidase conjugated to streptavidin followed by fluorography with enhanced chemiluminescence (Amersham International). Antibody analysis of whole embryos was performed as described by Klimbt et al. (1991), antibody binding being detected via fluorescein-conjugated donkey anti-rabbit IgG (Jackson Inmunoresearch Laboratories). Embryos were viewed using a Bio-Rad MRC 600 scanning laser confocal microscope.

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